

Unit 5

Heredity

Chapter 12: The Chromosomal Basis of Inheritance

Overview: Locating Genes Along Chromosomes

- Mendel's "hereditary factors" were genes
- Today we know that genes are located on chromosomes
- The location of a particular gene can be seen by tagging isolated chromosomes with a fluorescent dye that highlights the gene

Concept 12.1: Mendelian inheritance has its physical basis in the behavior of chromosomes

- The **chromosome theory of inheritance** states
 - Mendelian genes have specific loci (positions) on chromosomes
 - Chromosomes undergo segregation and independent assortment
- The behavior of chromosomes during meiosis can account for Mendel's laws of segregation and independent assortment

Figure 12.2

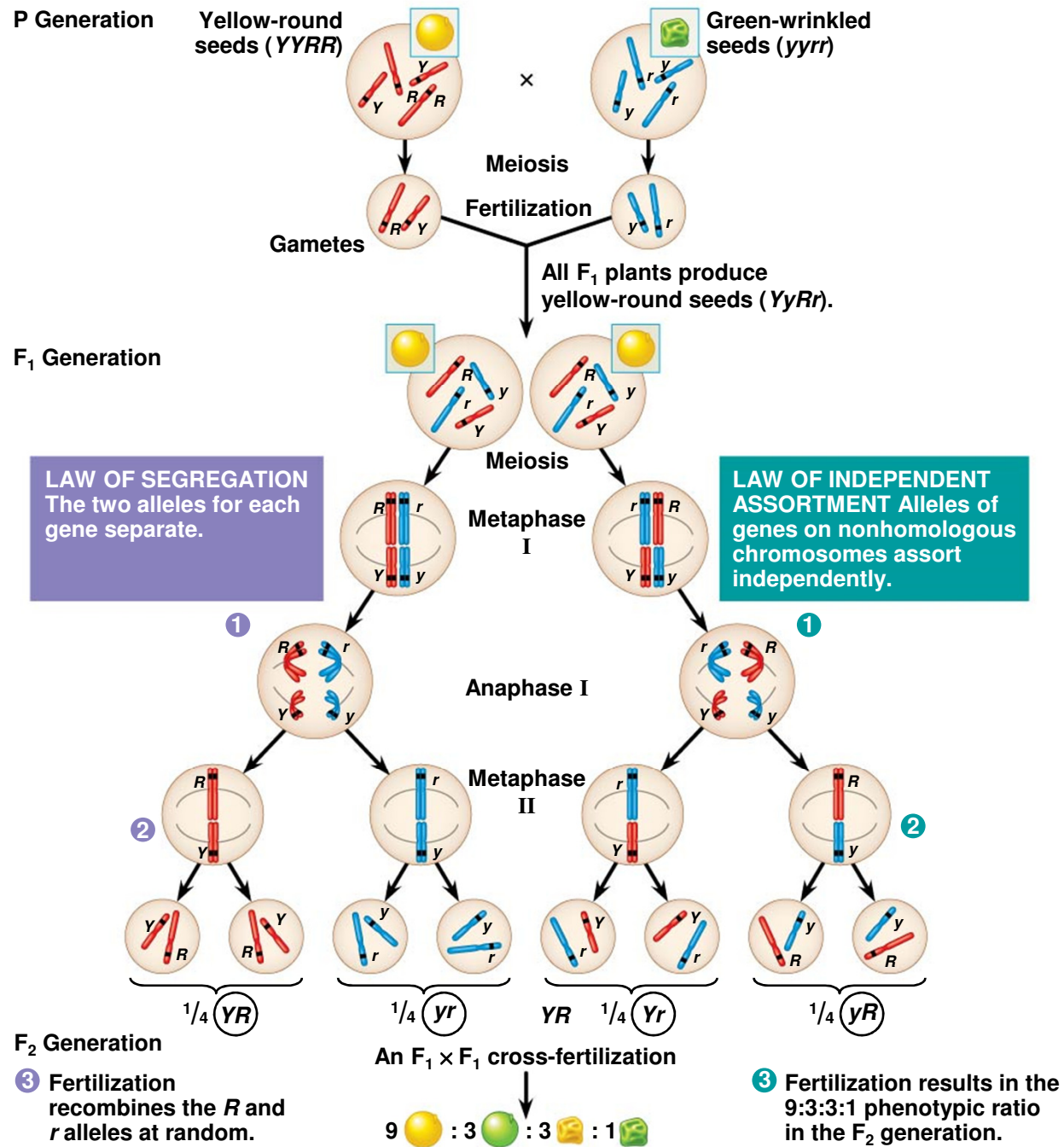
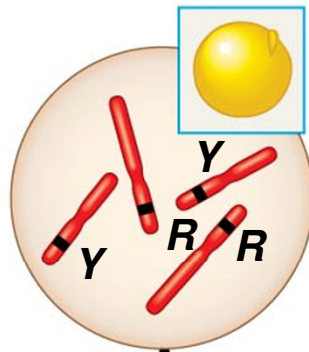


Figure 12.2a

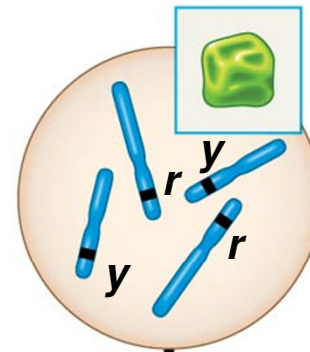
P Generation

Yellow-round
seeds ($YYRR$)



×

Green-wrinkled
seeds ($yyrr$)



Meiosis

Fertilization

Gametes

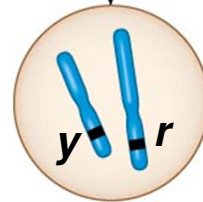


Figure 12.2b

F₁ Generation

All F₁ plants produce yellow-round seeds (*YyRr*).

LAW OF SEGREGATION
The two alleles for each gene separate.

LAW OF INDEPENDENT ASSORTMENT
Alleles of genes on nonhomologous chromosomes assort independently.

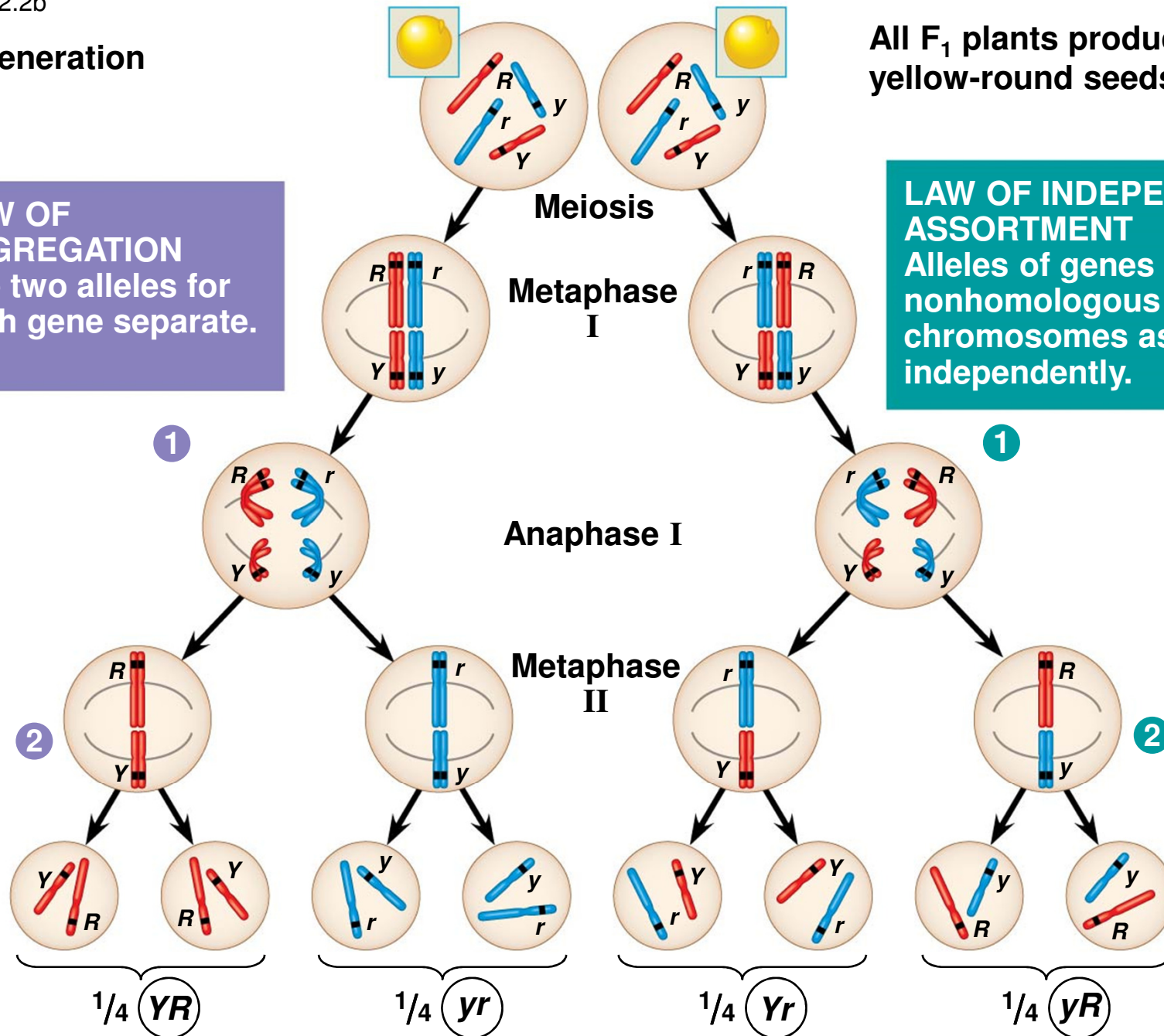


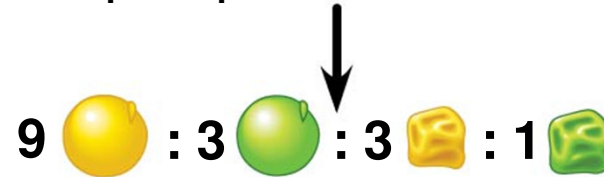
Figure 12.2c

LAW OF SEGREGATION

F₂ Generation

- ③ Fertilization recombines the *R* and *r* alleles at random.

An F₁ × F₁ cross-fertilization



LAW OF INDEPENDENT ASSORTMENT

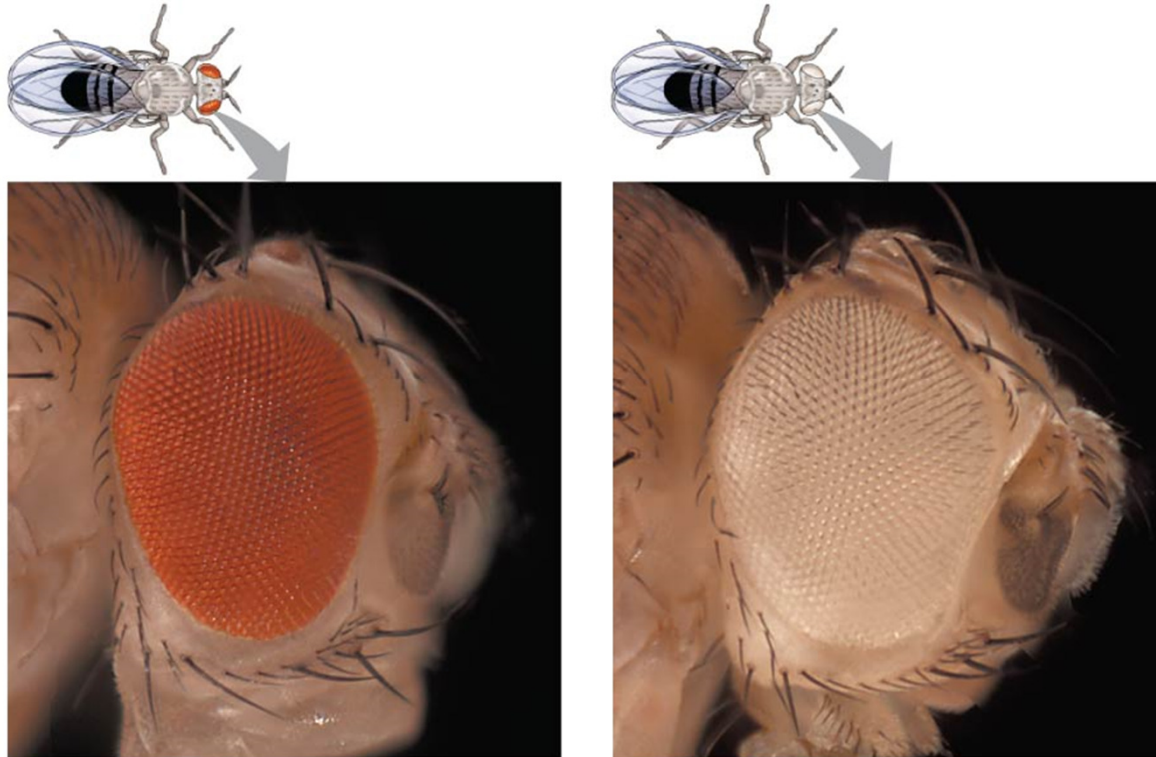
- ③ Fertilization results in the 9:3:3:1 phenotypic ratio in the F₂ generation.

Morgan's Experimental Evidence: *Scientific Inquiry*

- Thomas Hunt Morgan and his students began studying the genetics of the fruit fly, *Drosophila melanogaster*, in 1907
 - Experiments provided evidence that chromosomes are the location of Mendel's "heritable factors" (genes)
- Several characteristics make fruit flies a convenient organism for genetic studies
 - They produce many offspring
 - A generation can be bred every two weeks
 - They have only four pairs of chromosomes
 - 3 pairs of autosomes and 1 pair of sex chromosomes

-
- Morgan noted **wild-type**, or normal, phenotypes that were common in the fly populations
 - Traits alternative to the wild type are called *mutant* phenotypes
 - The first mutant phenotype they discovered was a fly with white eyes instead of the wild type, red

Figure 12.3



Correlating Behavior of a Gene's Alleles with Behavior of a Chromosome Pair

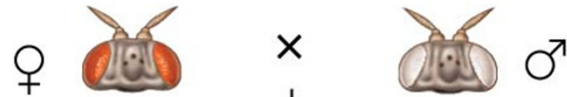
- In one experiment, Morgan mated male flies with white eyes (mutant) with female flies with red eyes (wild type)
 - The F_1 generation all had red eyes
 - The F_2 generation showed the classical 3:1 red:white ratio, but only males had white eyes
- Morgan concluded that the eye color was related to the sex of the fly

-
- Morgan determined that the white-eyed mutant allele must be located on the X chromosome
 - Morgan's finding supported the chromosome theory of inheritance
 - A specific gene is carried on a specific chromosome
 - Eye color gene on the X chromosome

Figure 12.4a

Experiment

P
Generation



F₁
Generation



**All offspring
had red eyes.**

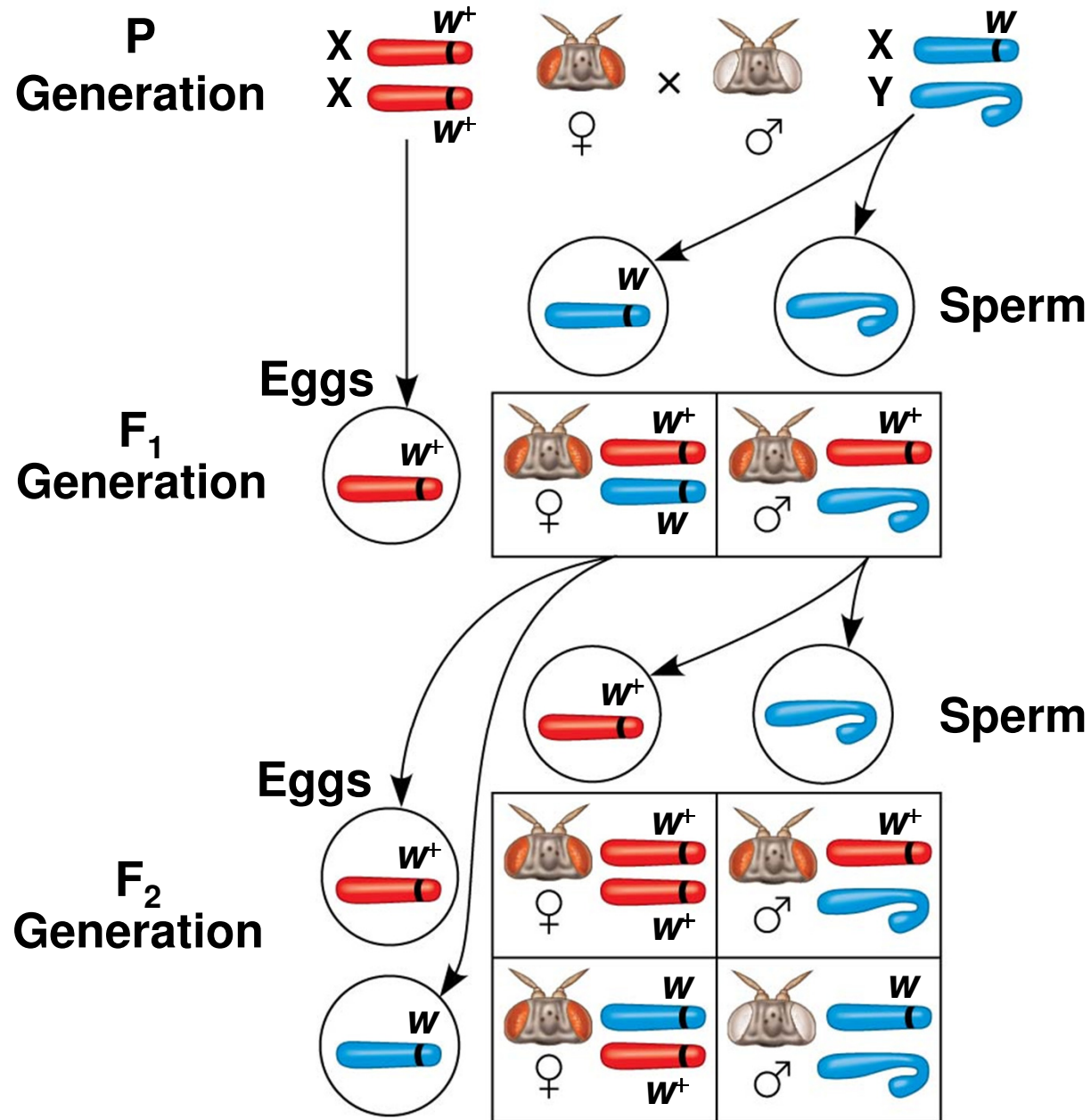
Results

F₂
Generation



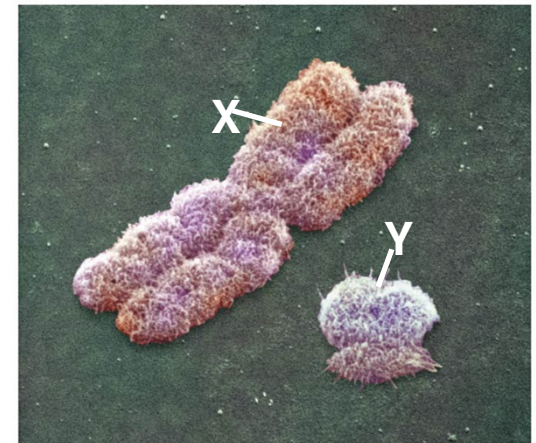
Figure 12.4b

Conclusion



Concept 12.2: Sex-linked genes exhibit unique patterns of inheritance

- In humans and some other animals, there is a chromosomal basis of sex determination
- In humans and other mammals, there are two varieties of sex chromosomes
 - A larger X chromosome
 - And a smaller Y chromosome
- Females are XX, and males are XY
- Each ovum contains an X chromosome, while a sperm may contain either an X or a Y chromosome



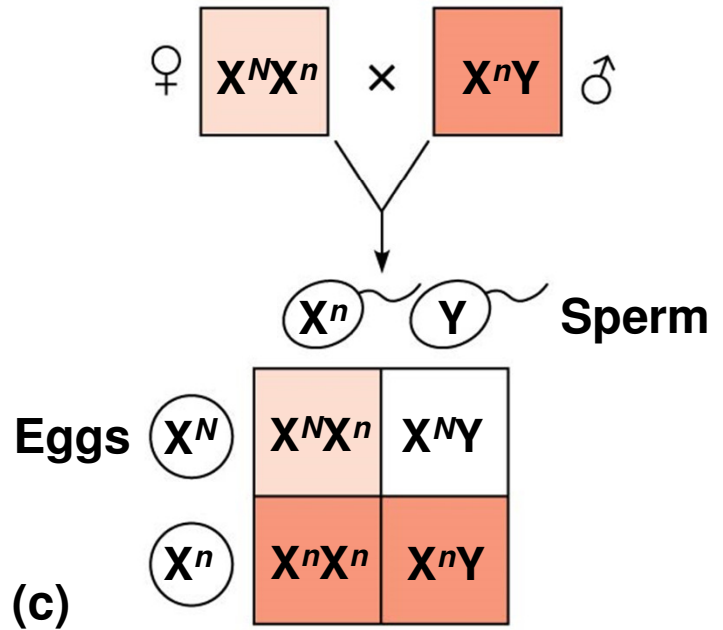
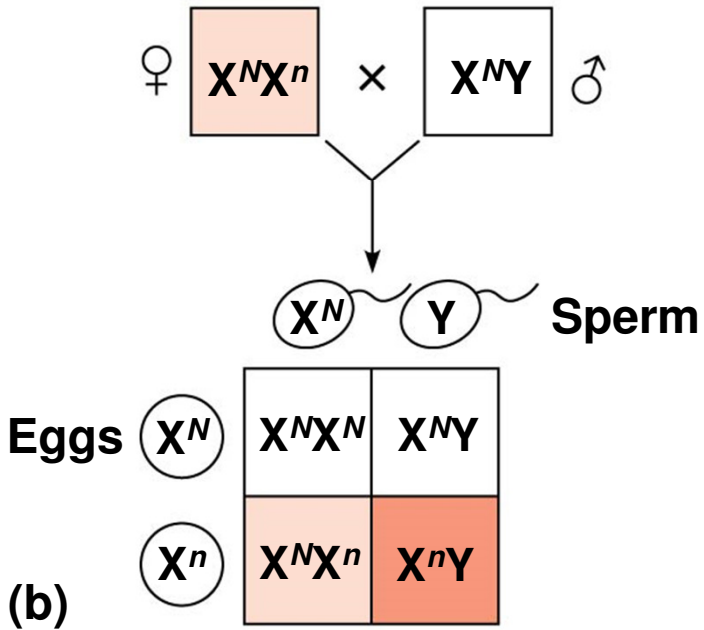
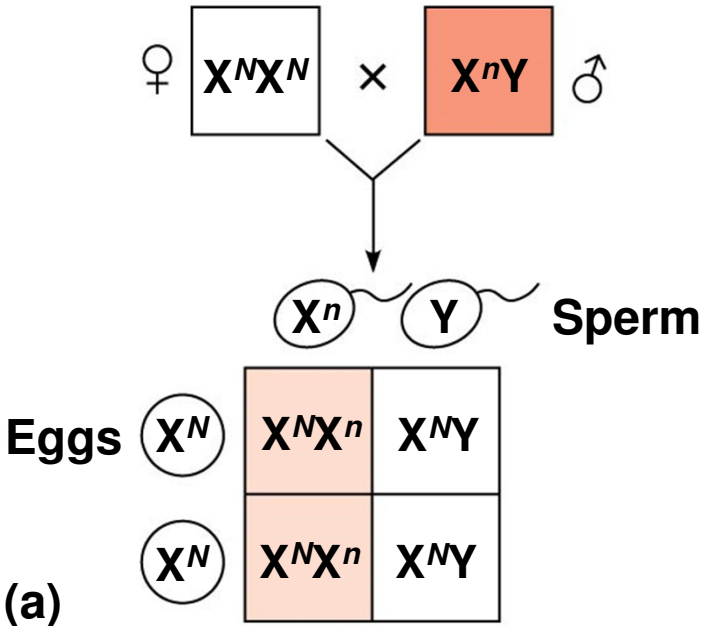
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- A gene that is located on either sex chromosome is called a **sex-linked gene**
 - Genes on the Y chromosome are called Y-linked genes
 - There are few of these
 - Passed from father to all sons
 - Genes on the X chromosome are called **X-linked genes**

Inheritance of X-Linked Genes

- Y chromosome mainly encodes genes related to sex determination
- X chromosomes have genes for many characters unrelated to sex
- Father's pass X-linked alleles to ALL of their daughters but NONE of their sons!
- Mother's can pass X-linked alleles to both sons and daughters

-
- For a recessive X-linked trait to be expressed
 - A female needs two copies of the allele (homozygous)
 - A male needs only one copy of the allele (*hemizygous*)
 - X-linked recessive disorders are much more common in males than in females
 - Any male receiving the recessive allele from his mother will express the trait
 - But females can inherit the trait from an affected father and a mother who is a carrier

Figure 12.7

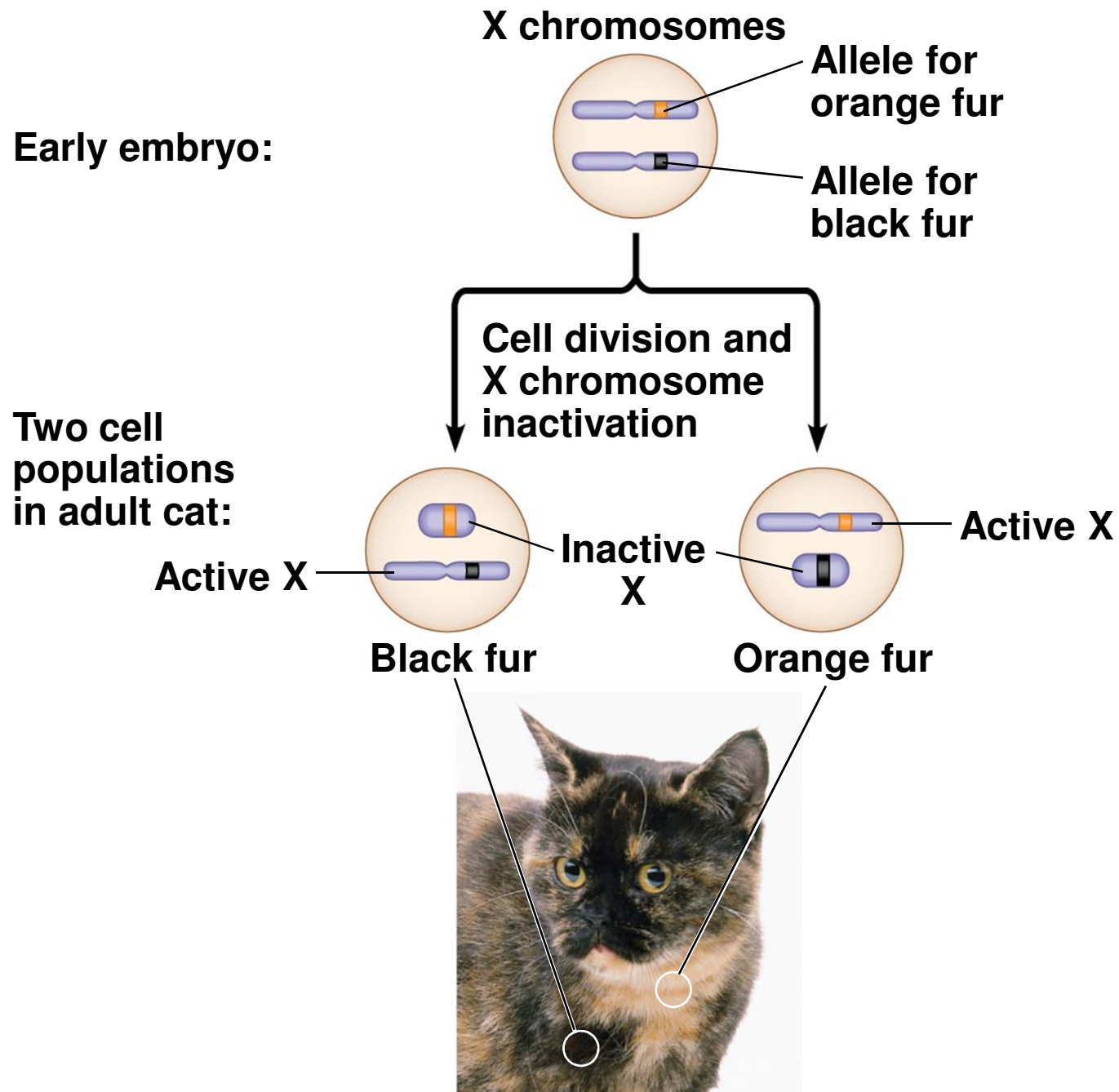


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- Some disorders caused by recessive alleles on the X chromosome in humans
 - Color blindness (mostly X-linked)
 - **Duchenne muscular dystrophy**
 - Progressive weakening and loss of muscle tissue
 - **Hemophilia**
 - Absence of blood clotting proteins resulting in excessive bleeding following injury

X Inactivation in Female Mammals

- In mammalian females, one of the two X chromosomes in each cell is randomly inactivated during embryonic development
- The inactive X condenses into a **Barr body**
- If a female is heterozygous for a particular gene located on the X chromosome, she will be a mosaic for that character

Figure 12.8



Concept 12.3: Linked genes tend to be inherited together because they are located near each other on the same chromosome

- Each chromosome has hundreds or thousands of genes (except the Y chromosome)
- Genes located on the same chromosome that tend to be inherited together are called **linked genes**

How Linkage Affects Inheritance

- Morgan did experiments with fruit flies that show how linkage affects inheritance of two characters
 - He crossed flies that differed in traits of body color and wing size
- Morgan found that body color and wing size are usually inherited together in specific combinations
 - He reasoned that since these genes did not assort independently, they were on the same chromosome

Figure 12.UN01

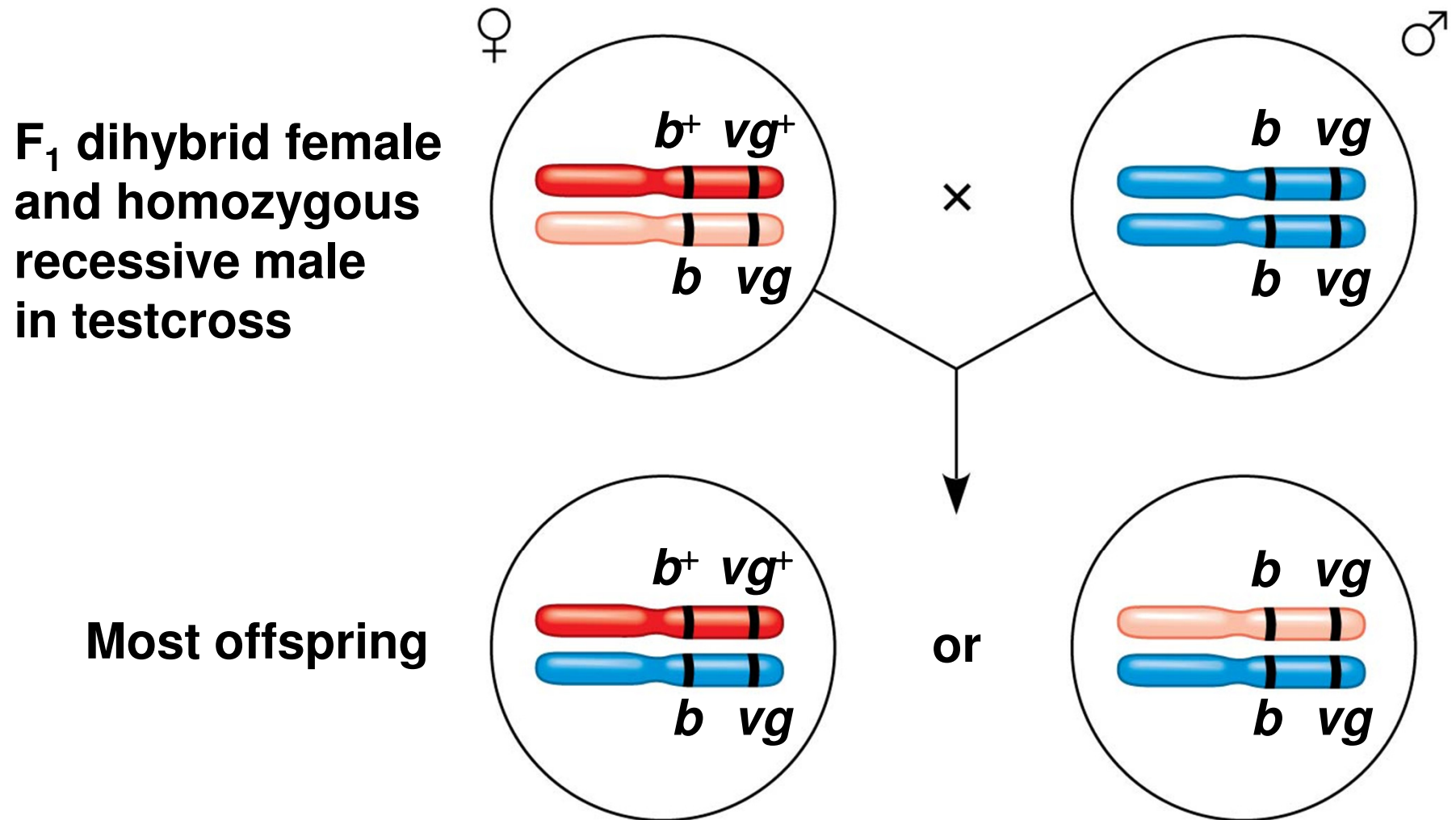


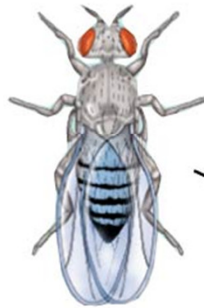
Figure 12.9a

Experiment

**P Generation
(homozygous)**

**Wild type
(gray body,
normal wings)**

$b^+ b^+ vg^+ vg^+$



×



**Double mutant
(black body,
vestigial wings)**

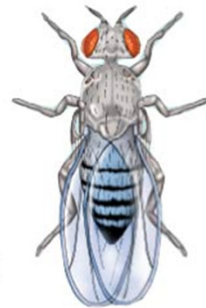
$b b vg vg$

F₁ dihybrid testcross

**Wild-type F₁ dihybrid
(gray body, normal wings)**

$b^+ b vg^+ vg$

♀



×



**Homozygous
recessive (black
body, vestigial
wings)**

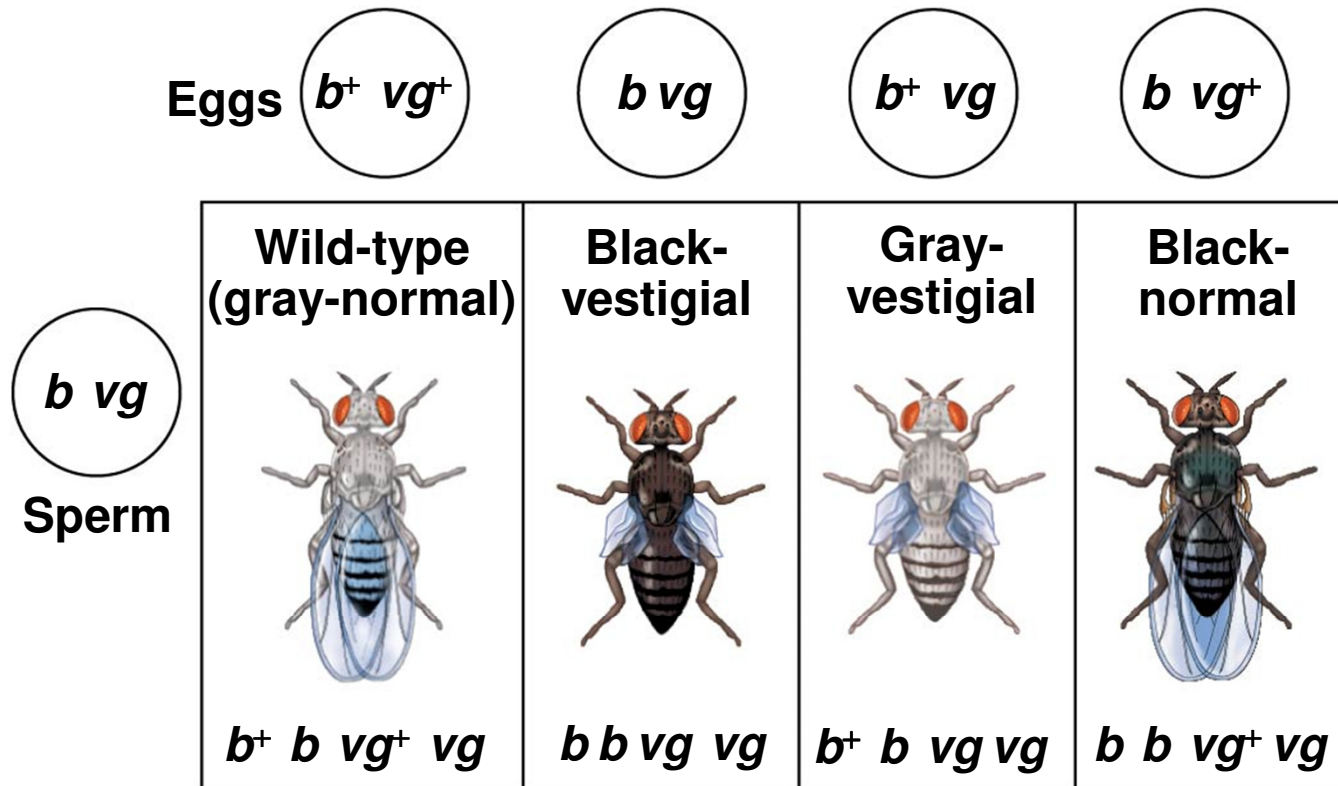
$b b vg vg$

♂

Figure 12.9b

Experiment

Testcross
offspring



PREDICTED RATIOS

Genes on different
chromosomes:

1 : 1 : 1 : 1

Genes on same
chromosome:

1 : 1 : 0 : 0

Results

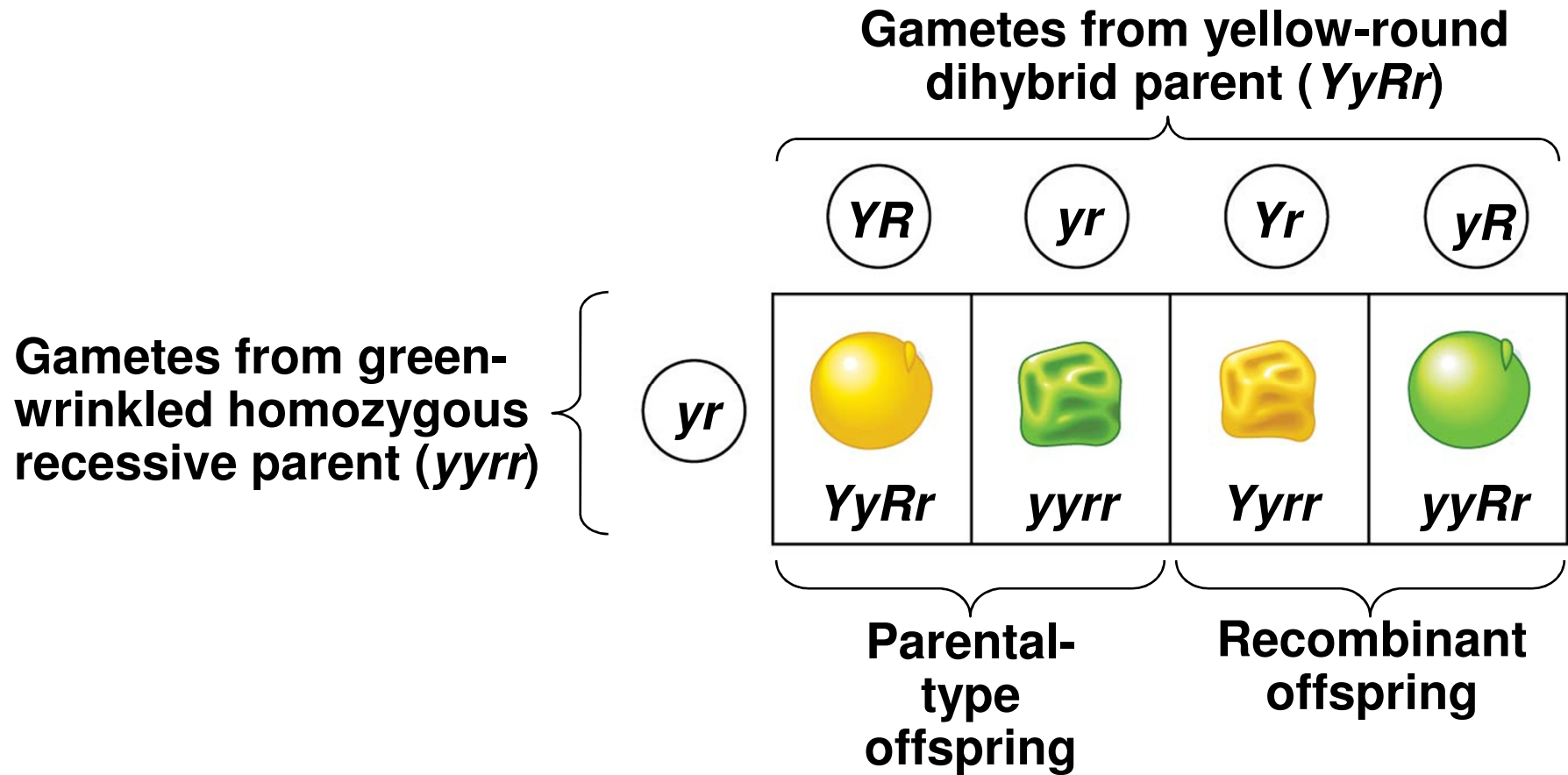
965 : 944 : 206 : 185

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- However, nonparental phenotypes were also produced
 - Understanding this result involves exploring **genetic recombination**, the production of offspring with combinations of traits differing from either parent

Recombination of Unlinked Genes: Independent Assortment of Chromosomes

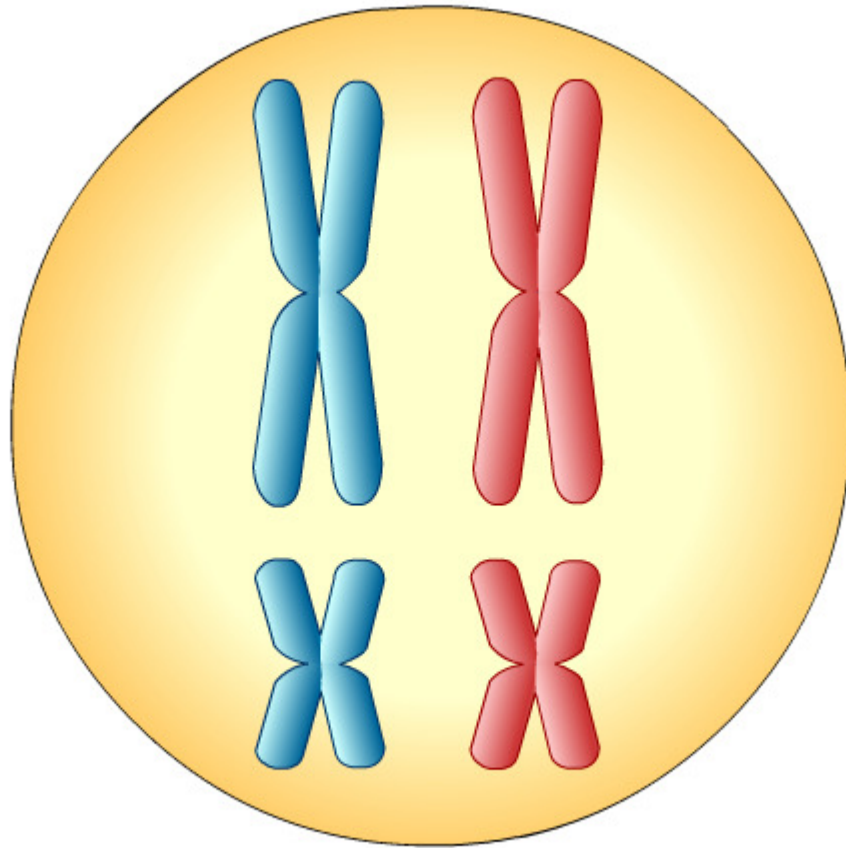
- Mendel observed that combinations of traits in some offspring differ from either parent
- Offspring with a phenotype matching one of the parental phenotypes are called **parental types**
- Offspring with nonparental phenotypes (new combinations of traits) are called **recombinant types**, or **recombinants**
- A 50% frequency of recombination is observed for any two genes on different chromosomes (unlinked)
 - Due to independent assortment during Metaphase I of meiosis

Figure 12.UN02



Recombination of Linked Genes: Crossing Over

- Morgan discovered that even when two genes were on the same chromosome, some recombinant phenotypes were observed
- He proposed that some process must occasionally break the physical connection between genes on the same chromosome
- That mechanism was the **crossing over** between homologous chromosomes
 - End portions of two nonsister chromatids trade places
 - Accounts for recombination of linked genes



Animation: Crossing Over
Right click slide / Select play

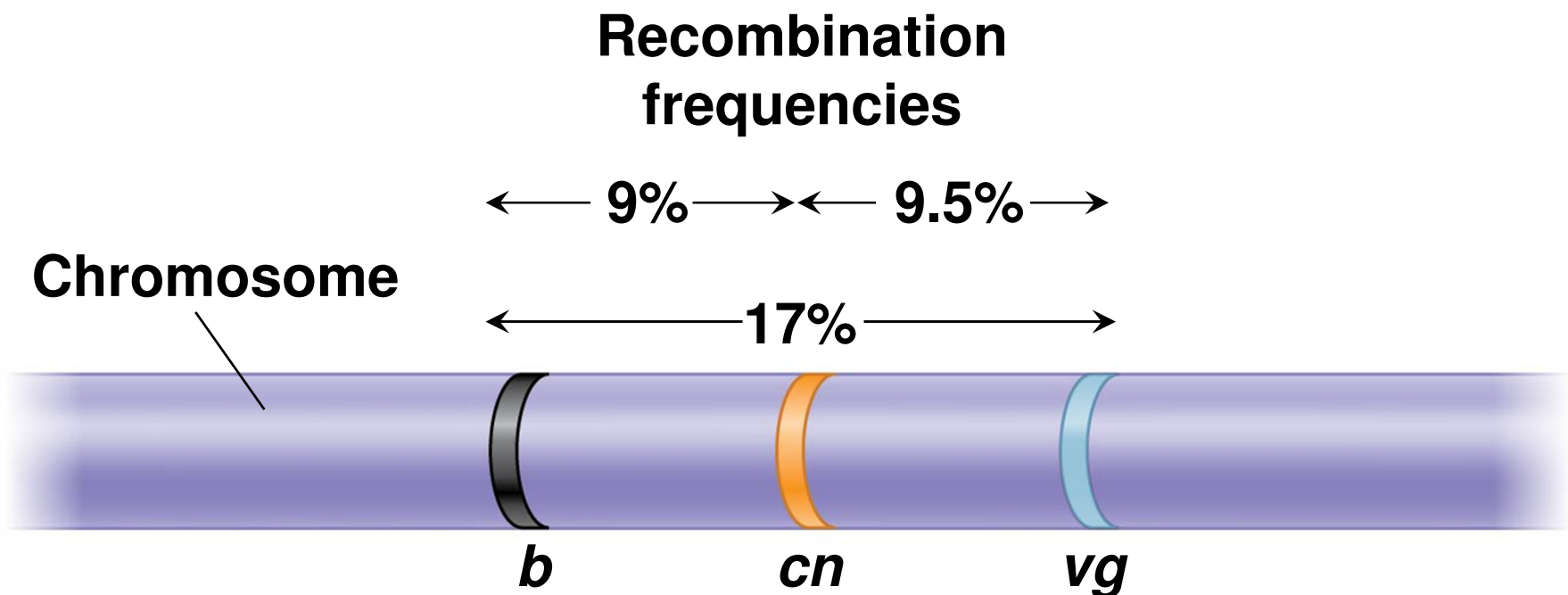
New Combinations of Alleles: Variation for Normal Selection

- Recombinant chromosomes bring alleles together in new combinations in gametes
- Random fertilization increases even further the number of variant combinations that can be produced
- This abundance of genetic variation is the raw material upon which natural selection works

Mapping the Distance Between Genes Using Recombination Data: *Scientific Inquiry*

- Alfred Sturtevant, one of Morgan's students, constructed a **genetic map**
 - Ordered list of the genetic loci along a particular chromosome
- Sturtevant hypothesized that the recombination frequency depends on the distance between genes on a chromosome
 - *The farther apart two genes are, the higher the probability that a crossover will occur between them and therefore the higher the recombination frequency*

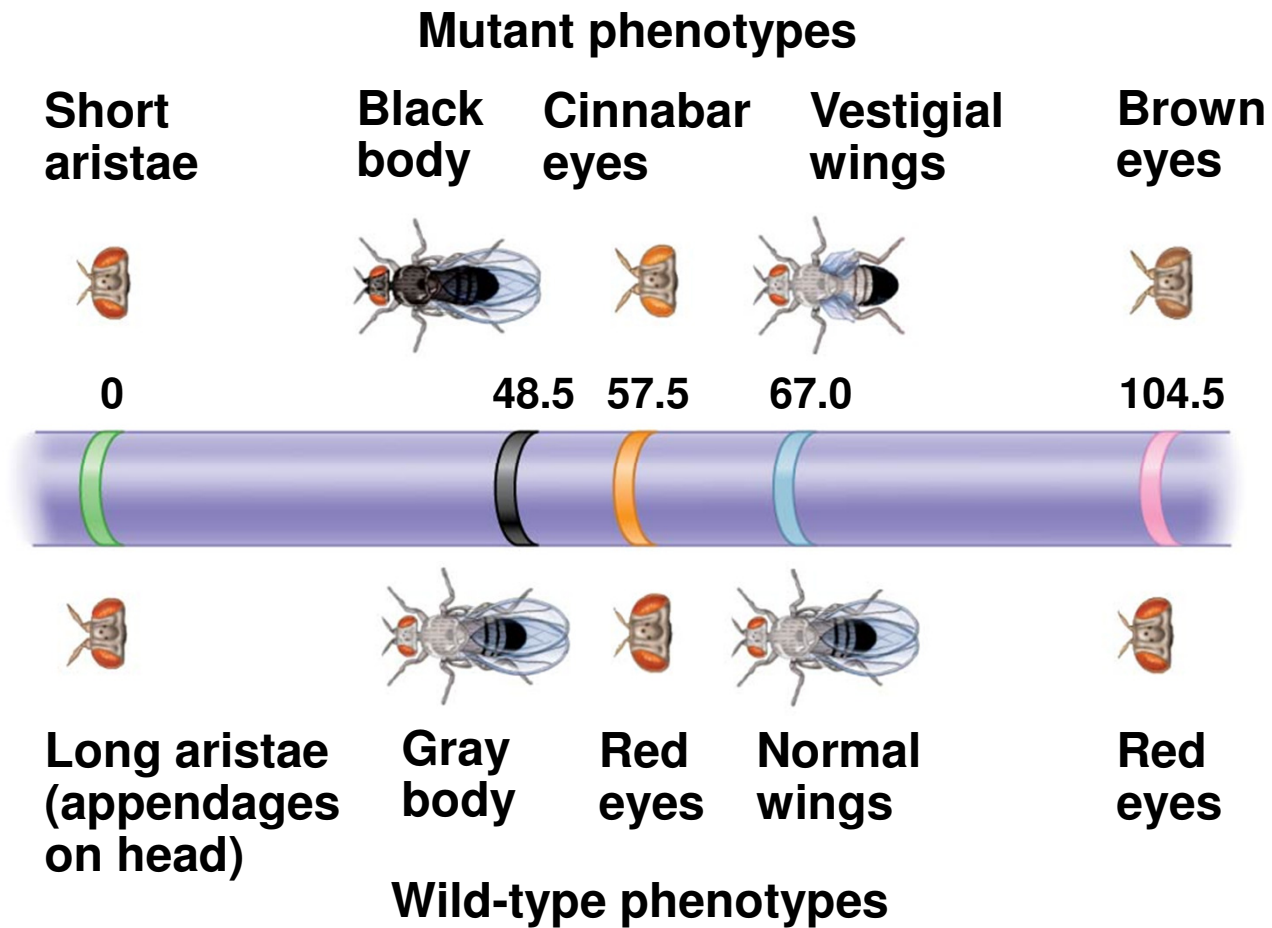
- A **linkage map** is a genetic map of a chromosome based on recombination frequencies
- Distances between genes can be expressed as **map units**
 - One map unit represents a 1% recombination frequency



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- Genes that are far apart on the same chromosome can have a recombination frequency near 50%
 - Such genes are physically linked by being on the same chromosome
 - But genetically unlinked and sort independently
 - Thus behave as if found on different chromosomes!

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- Sturtevant used recombination frequencies to make linkage maps of fruit fly genes
 - Each chromosome has a linear array of specific genes and each gene has its own locus
 - A linkage map portrays the order of genes along a chromosome
 - It does not accurately portray the precise location of those genes
 - Using methods like chromosomal banding, geneticists can develop cytogenetic maps of chromosomes
 - **Cytogenetic maps** indicate the positions of genes with respect to chromosomal features

Figure 12.12

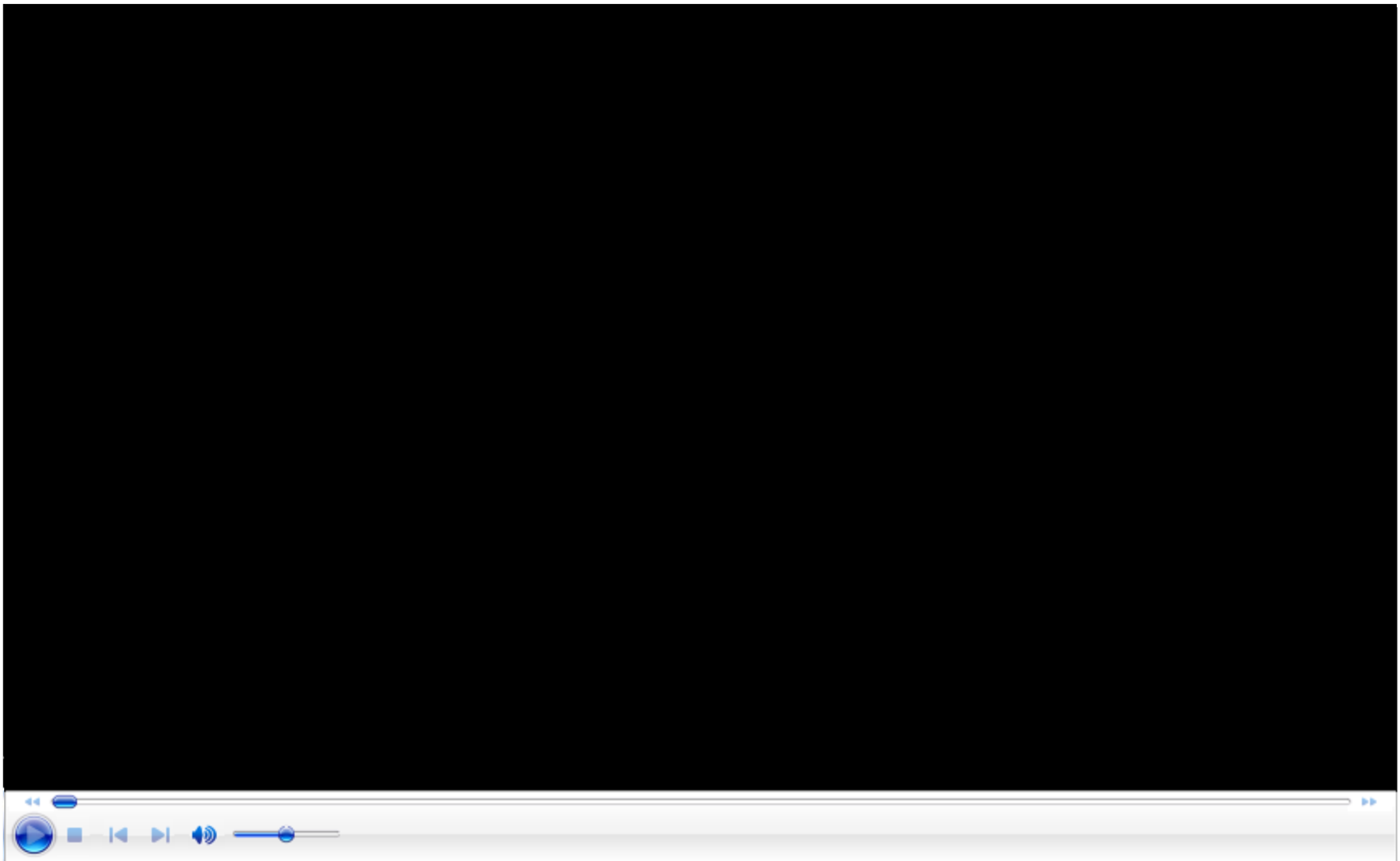


Concept 12.4: Alterations of chromosome number or structure cause some genetic disorders

- Large-scale chromosomal alterations in humans and other mammals often lead to spontaneous abortions (miscarriages) or cause a variety of developmental disorders
- Plants tolerate such genetic changes better than animals do

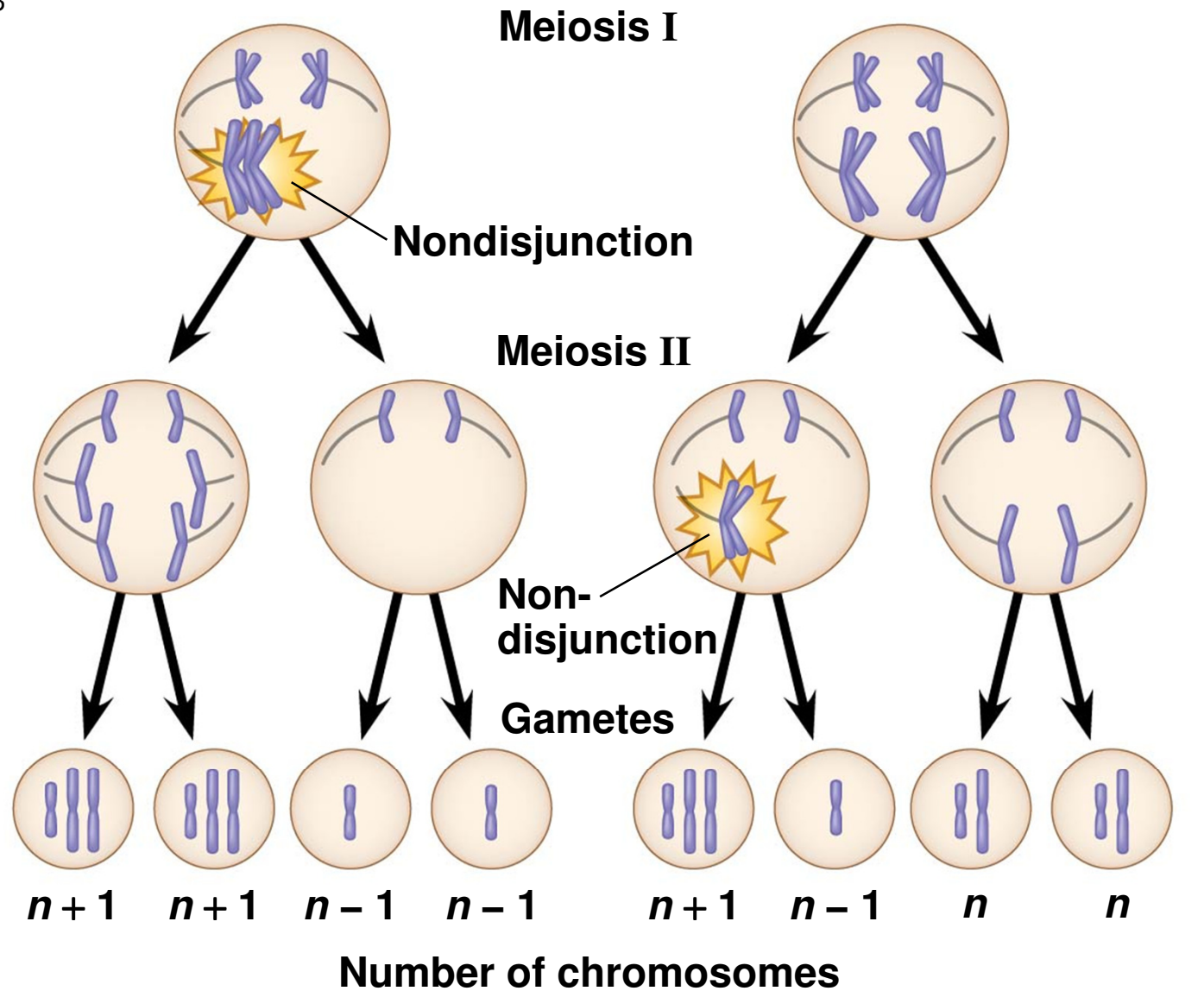
Abnormal Chromosome Number

- In **nondisjunction**, pairs of homologous chromosomes do not separate normally during anaphase of meiosis
- As a result, one gamete receives two of the same type of chromosome, and another gamete receives no copy



Video: Nondisjunction

Figure 12.13-3



(a) Nondisjunction of homologous chromosomes in meiosis I

(b) Nondisjunction of sister chromatids in meiosis II

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- **Aneuploidy** results from the fertilization of gametes in which nondisjunction occurred
 - Offspring with this condition have an abnormal number of a particular chromosome
 - A **monosomic** zygote has only one copy of a particular chromosome
 - A **trisomic** zygote has three copies of a particular chromosome
 - Ex: Down syndrome (Trisomy 21)

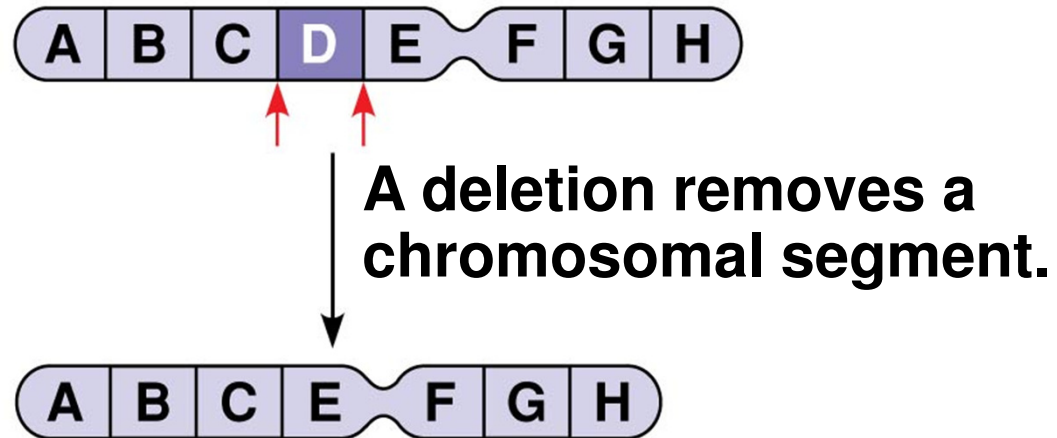
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- **Polyploidy** is a condition in which an organism has more than two complete sets of chromosomes
 - Triploidy ($3n$) is three sets of chromosomes
 - Tetraploidy ($4n$) is four sets of chromosomes
 - Polyploidy is common in plants, but not animals
 - Bananas are triploid
 - Wheat is hexaploid ($6n$)
 - Strawberries are octoploid ($8n$)
 - Polyploids are more normal in appearance than aneuploids

Alterations of Chromosome Structure

- Errors in meiosis or damaging agents like radiation can cause breakage of a chromosome
- This can lead to four types of changes in chromosome structure
 - **Deletion** removes a chromosomal segment
 - Missing certain genes
 - **Duplication** repeats a segment
 - **Inversion** reverses orientation of a segment within a chromosome
 - **Translocation** moves a segment from one chromosome to another

Figure 12.14a

(a) Deletion



(b) Duplication

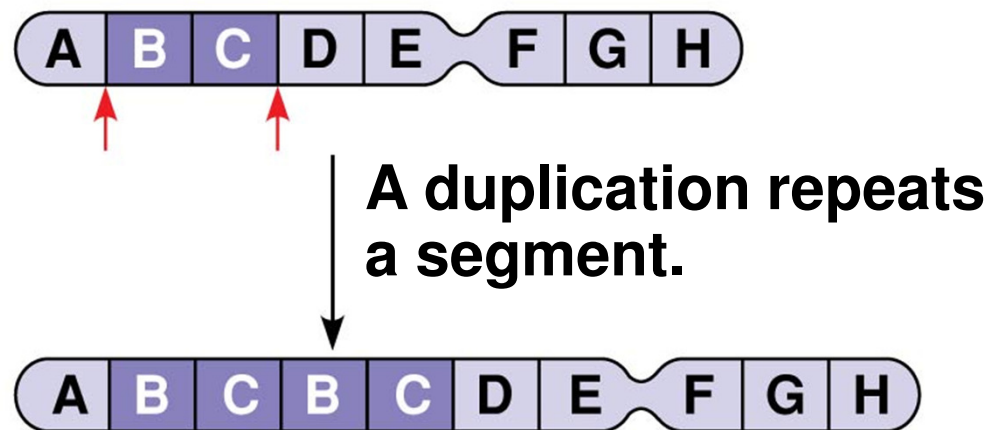
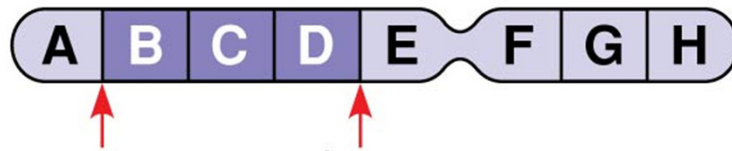


Figure 12.14b

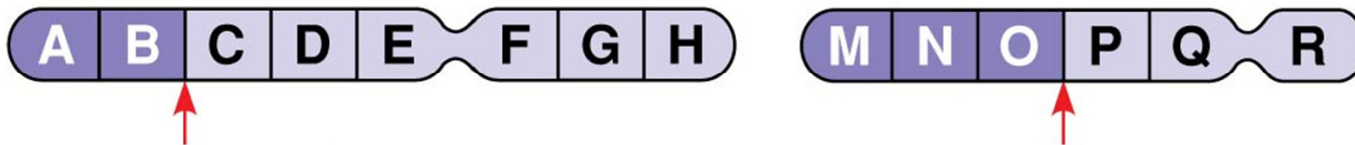
(c) Inversion



An inversion reverses a segment within a chromosome.



(d) Translocation



A translocation moves a segment from one chromosome to a nonhomologous chromosome.



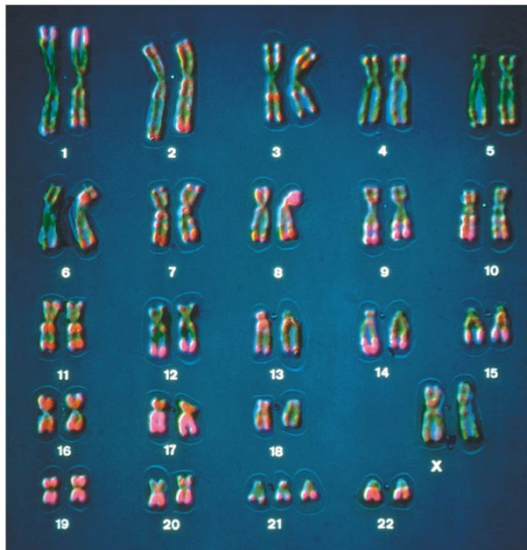
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- Deletions and duplications are especially likely to occur during meiosis
 - Unequal exchange in crossing over
 - A diploid embryo that is homozygous for a large deletion is likely missing a number of essential genes
 - Generally lethal
 - Duplications and translocations also tend to be harmful
 - In inversions, the balance of genes is normal but phenotype may be influenced if the expression of genes is altered

Human Disorders Due to Chromosomal Alterations

- Alterations of chromosome number and structure are associated with some serious disorders
- Some types of aneuploidy upset the genetic balance less than others, resulting in individuals surviving to birth and beyond
- These surviving individuals have a set of symptoms, or syndrome, characteristic of the type of aneuploidy

Down Syndrome (Trisomy 21)

- **Down syndrome** is an aneuploid condition that results from three copies of chromosome 21
- It affects about one out of every 700 children born in the United States
- The frequency of Down syndrome increases with the age of the mother



Aneuploidy of Sex Chromosomes

- Nondisjunction of sex chromosomes produces a variety of aneuploid conditions
 - Tend to be less severe than autosomal aneuploids
 - Due to Y chromosome carrying few genes and X inactivation
- Klinefelter syndrome is the result of an extra chromosome in a male, producing XXY individuals
- Females with trisomy X (XXX) have no unusual physical features except being slightly taller than average
- Monosomy X, called Turner syndrome, produces XO females, who are sterile
 - It is the only known viable monosomy in humans

Disorders Caused by Structurally Altered Chromosomes

- The syndrome *cri du chat* (“cry of the cat”) results from a specific deletion in chromosome 5
 - A child born with this syndrome is mentally retarded and has a catlike cry
 - Individuals usually die in infancy or early childhood
- Certain cancers, including *chronic myelogenous leukemia* (CML), are caused by translocations of chromosomes